Autobiography and Memory:  
Gustavus Vassa, alias Olaudah Equiano, the African

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Ex hoc uno discem omens – this one fact tells all
The Oracle, 25 April 1792

The Interesting Narrative of the Life of Olaudah Equiano, or Gustavus Vassa, the African. Written by Himself, published in 1789 at the time of Parliamentary hearings into the slave trade, played a key role in the abolition of the British slave trade. Its author promoted the abolitionist cause on speaking tours and through political action, and hence was clearly a strong voice that ultimately was heeded in abolition in 1807, alas a decade after his death in 1797. The Interesting Narrative went through nine editions by 1794 and, at the time, was perceived as ‘a principal instrument in bringing about the motion for a repeal of the Slave-Act,’ although in fact the motion before Parliament was introduced in January 1789 and the Interesting Narrative was only published in March. Nonetheless, the book was influential in shaping public opinion thereafter and therefore was important in the ultimate withdrawal of Britain from the slave trade. It is perhaps no wonder, then, that Olaudah Equiano, alias Gustavus Vassa, the ‘African,’ has been described as the ‘the vanguard of the Abolitionist movement in England.’ Certainly his stature, as perceived through historical hindsight if not always appreciated, was comparable to that of Ramsay, Sharp, Clarkson and Wilberforce. And with the possible exception of Cuagno, there was no other African in London who commanded such respect as a spokesperson for black people, whether African born or descendents of those forcibly removed from Africa.

My concern is with the relationship between autobiography and memory, and I focus specifically on Vassa’s claim that he was an African, born in the interior of the Bight of Biafra where he only spoke the Igbo language and where he was exposed to the culture that has come to be recognized as Igbo. Despite the existence of documentation that refutes his claim to an African birth, it is argued here that circumstantial evidence indicates that he was born where he said he was, and that in fact The Interesting Narrative is reasonably accurate in its details, although of course subject to the same criticisms of selectivity and self-interested distortion that characterize the genre of autobiography. The existence of records that indicate he was born in South Carolina has implications for understanding the relationship between autobiography and memory, and the reasons that individuals remember what they do and the ways in which memory is confirmed and embellished, and in this case perhaps distorted for reasons worth considering.

The problem of deciphering the early life of the author of The Interesting Narrative hinges on his name: Equiano or Vassa, what is he to be called? He says that his African birth name was Olaudah Equiano, with his slave name being Gustavus Vassa.

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Here the man is referred to as Vassa, because that was the name he used himself, as evidenced in his baptism, his naval records, marriage certificate, and will. The name Equiano will be reserved for the subject of his autobiography – himself. In the *Interesting Narrative* Vassa often reveals what he chose, consciously or unconsciously, to select from his memory, and there are gaps in information that indicate some things that he wanted to forget. Where he was born was not one of these, and he states clearly that he was born in Africa – in ‘in a charming fruitful vale, named Essaka.’ What is the significance, then, of documentation that says otherwise, and why is it relevant where and when he was born? Where this prominent political activist and intellectual came from was questioned in his own time, although in that context the charges that he faked his account of his childhood were clearly fictitious and malicious.

More recently, Vincent Carretta has challenged the authenticity of Vassa’s account of his childhood, this time based on the discovery of important documentary evidence that he may have been born in South Carolina. According to Carretta,

> Recent biographical discoveries cast doubt on Equiano's story of his birth and early years. The available evidence suggests that the author of *The Interesting Narrative* may have invented rather than reclaimed an African identity.  
> Baptismal and naval records say that he was born in South Carolina around 1747.  
> If they are accurate, he invented his African childhood and his much-quoted account of the Middle Passage on a slave ship.

The issue is clear: are his descriptions of his experiences of Africa and the notorious ‘Middle Passage’ fabricated or are they derived from his personal experience? It might be argued that it doesn’t matter that much in terms of Vassa’s impact on the abolition movement, which was profound, because a fictionalized account of his childhood might be just as effective for political purposes to garner support for the abolitionist cause as an account that was in fact the truth. Carretta has even argued that the fictitious nature of the first part of *The Interesting Narrative* is all the more important, demonstrating Vassa’s great skill as a writer. However, it does matter whether or not he told the truth, since he has been widely recognized as an African, and his political clout was based on this very detail. As his critics in *The Oracle* of 1792 stated clearly, ‘Ex hoc uno disce omens – this one fact tells all.’ That he was a great writer is not in question; where he was born is the relevant question. The contradiction in the claims of the various sources are worthy of reflection because of the methodological issues of how conflicting evidence is assessed.

Vassa’s *Interesting Narrative* was a powerful influence on public opinion in his day, and in recent times, the book has been deemed one of the most significant examples of the surviving memory of the slave trade. According to Henry Louis Gates, *The Interesting Narrative* ‘became the prototype of the nineteenth-century slave narrative.’ Despite its inspirational value before 1807, it has been thought that the book experienced a long period of relative obscurity after British abolition, and consequently, Vassa’s contribution to the abolition movement has been overlooked and sometimes trivialized. The book was rediscovered in 1960, when Thomas Hodgkin published an excerpt in his collection of sources, *Nigerian Perspectives*. Historians, anthropologists and literary scholars were then quick to note its importance, relying on *The Interesting Narrative* for information on mid eighteenth century life in the interior of the Bight of Biafra. In 1967, the anthropologist G.I. Jones published annotated excerpts on the African dimension of the account, while Paul Edwards produced the first modern version of the
text. The eminent Nigerian historian, A.E. Afigbo, intended to publish a critical edition, but the Nigerian Civil War intervened, and his introductory essay was only published in *Ropes of Sand* in 1981. Some scholars have insisted that Vassa’s account is important because there is virtually no other information on the interior of the Bight of Biafra in the eighteenth century. This is a pessimistic view of available source material. Historians have generally relied on Vassa’s account because it is one of the few readily accessible sources, to be sure, but there is considerably more information on the Bight of Biafra and its interior than is generally recognized because this region was one of the major sources of enslaved Africans taken to the Americas, and especially for the British trade. Nonetheless, as Adam Hochschild has noted, since the ‘rediscovery’ of Vassa’s account in the 1960s, ‘scholars have valued it as the most extensive account of an eighteenth-century slave’s life’ and the passage from slavery to freedom.

The Middle Passage imagery derived from Vassa’s account has been widely cited and reprinted. As Louise Rolingher has argued, ‘anthropologists and Igbo nationalists have…shown a keen interest in Olaudah and his narrative, [but] by far the greatest interest has come from scholars of comparative, English, and American literature, and more recently, those of cultural studies. Their focus has been…his *Narrative* as a part of an American literary genre.’ Gates has stated that the *Interesting Narrative* ‘created the first large audience for any black writer in America,’ and popularity only increased in the last third of the twentieth century. As James Walvin has argued, Equiano’s identity in his adult life was with England and more generally with the British-dominated ‘Black Atlantic,’ and it would perhaps be more accurate to state that he was the first black person to command a large audience foremost in Britain and not focus only on the newly independent United States of America.

The issue of authenticity was recognized in Vassa’s time. In a letter to William Hughes, Bath, October 10, 1793, William Langworthy, recommending Vassa and his book, noted that ‘the simplicity that runs through his Narrative is singularly beautiful, and that beauty is heightened by the idea that it is true; this is all that I shall say about this book.’ The emphasis on truth was in the original. Langworthy noted ‘the active part he [Vassa] took in bringing about the motion for a repeal of the Slave Act, [which] has given him much celebrity as a public man; and, in all the varied scenes of chequered life, through which he has passed, his private character and conduct have been irreplaceable.’ Vassa was ‘engaged in so noble a cause as the freedom and salvation of his enslaved and unenlightened countrymen.’ If he was not born in Africa, then he lied, perhaps with noble political motives, but nonetheless propagating a falsehood, since kidnapping and sale into slavery were the central features of his autobiography, intended for political reasons to advance the cause of abolition. His book sold well because he was an ‘authentic’ African.

But what is to be believed in *The Interesting Narrative*? Where he was born is perhaps the most crucial element in the narrative. The reliance on memory as portrayed in this autobiography is the issue being addressed here. What did he remember? What did he forget? What is not clear? What did he hide? According to his own assessment of his autobiography,

My life and fortune have been extremely chequered, and my adventures various. Even those I have related are considerably abridged. If any incident in this little work should appear uninteresting and trifling to most readers, I can only say, as
my excuse for mentioning it, that almost every event of my life made an impression on my mind, and influenced my conduct. I early accustomed myself to look at the hand of God in the minutest occurrence, and to learn from it a lesson of morality and religion; and in this light every circumstance I have related was to me of importance.\textsuperscript{19}

His observation certainly extended to the name that he was given, probably with some degree of humility because of its significance, but which he adopted and exploited for political ends.

He claims that when his master, Michael Henry Pascal, gave him the name Gustavus Vassa at age 12 while crossing the Atlantic in 1754, he ‘refused to be called so.’ He apparently had not objected to the names he had been given earlier – Michael on board the slave ship, and then Jacob in Virginia – and he could not possibly have known who his namesake was in 1754, but when he ‘refused to answer to my new name, which at first I did, it gained me many a cuff; so at length I submitted, and by which I have been known ever since.’\textsuperscript{20} I would suggest that his apparent reluctance is probably a literary device to make the point that his destiny was predetermined. The choice of name seems to have been prophetic, since his namesake was none other than the Swedish national hero, Gustavus Vasa (1496-1560), king of Sweden (1523-60), founder of the modern Swedish state and the Vasa dynasty.\textsuperscript{21} Known as Gustavus Eriksson before his coronation, King Gustavus I was the son of Erik Johansson, a Swedish senator and nationalist, who was killed in the massacre at Stockholm in 1520, under the orders of King Christian II of Denmark, attempting to assert his control over Sweden under the Kalmar Union. Gustavus was imprisoned but escaped to lead the peasants of Dalarna to victory over the Danes, being elected protector of Sweden in 1521. In 1523 the Riksdag at Strangnas elected him king, ending the Kalmar Union.

Two centuries later, English playwright Henry Brooke recorded these heroic deeds in his play, \textit{Gustavus Vasa, The Deliverer of his Country}, published in 1739. The play was banned for political reasons and was not actually staged in London until 1805, in Covent Garden. However, it was performed in Dublin in 1742 as \textit{The Patriot}, and it was republished in 1761, 1778, 1796, and 1797. According to Vincent Carretta, ‘republication…kept the play and its discourse of political slavery before the British public.’\textsuperscript{22} Moreover, the example was also kept before the public because the reigning king of Sweden from 1771 until his tragic death in 1792 was the popular Gustavus Vasa III, who was murdered by Count Ankarstrom at an opera, dying of wounds on March 29, 1792. The tragedy became the inspiration for Giuseppe Verdi’s \textit{Un Ballo in Maschera}. The significance of the name Gustavus Vassa as an African figured into the London imagination as an image of an African Moses comparable to the Swedish model.

Did Vassa shun his assigned name, and the fate that was bestowed upon him as a leader of his people in the abolitionist cause? A careful reading of his protestations confirms the view that opposition to his name was a literary device, an act of overt modesty, not the reaction of a precocious pre-teen expressing his resistance. He always used the name Gustavus Vassa, even after publication of his \textit{Interesting Narrative} in which he popularized his birth name as Equiano, which appears to be derived from Ekwuno, Ekweano, Ekwoanya, or Ekwealuo, all common Igbo names.\textsuperscript{23} In the first edition, Vassa stated that he ‘was obliged to bear the present name [Vassa], by which I
have been known ever since, while in the 9th edition in 1794, he only stated that it was the ‘name I have been known ever since.’ According to Carretta,

except for its appearance on the title page, the name Olaudah Equiano was never used by the author of The Interesting Narrative in either public or private written communication. Whether in print, unpublished correspondence, or in his will, he always identified himself as Gustavus Vassa. Carretta’s claim requires a slight qualification, which he makes himself. He did use his birth name Equiano on other occasions, but apparently never alone. He identified himself with both names in soliciting subscriptions in November 1788, again in co-signing a letter published 25 April 1789, writing as one of the ‘Sons of Africa,’ and in a letter dated May 14, 1792, Grosvenor Street, to ‘the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and the Commons of the Parliament of Great Britain.’ Otherwise, his marriage certificate, his will, and the rental agreement for his flat in Plaisterers’ Hall, near the London City Wall, are all in the name of Vassa, as is virtually all other documentation. Why scholars and the student public have used his ‘African’ name, rather than the name he actually used, is a subject worthy of reflection. It says more about those who identify with the idea of ‘Equiano’ than about the life of Vassa. In the case of Vincent Carretta’s biography, however, it is clear that the title, Equiano, the African, Biography of a Self Made Man, plays to the idea that Vassa was not born in Africa but created the story of Equiano and an African birth. Carretta concludes that Vassa was born in South Carolina and hence was not a native of Igbo land.

Vassa, however, appears to have attached significance to his assigned name because it drew on public knowledge of the history of his Swedish namesake. He seems to have interpreted his experiences in the context of his perception of destiny, which derived from a religious conceptualization based on his childhood acculturation as Igbo. As Paul Edwards and Rosalind Shaw have demonstrated, the concept of ‘chi’ pervaded Igbo cosmology and was a factor in the psychology of Vassa. As a child, he would have learned that the relationship of an individual with the supernatural was special, depending upon a personal chi. As he stated in The Interesting Narrative, ‘I regard myself as a particular favourite of Heaven, and acknowledge the mercies of Providence in every occurrence of my life.’ His apparent reluctance when named Vassa appears to have been related to the necessity of accepting his fate. Indeed his comments on his personal destiny are consistent with this interpretation. On board ship to England with his new master, Pascal, he noted that he was ‘still at a loss to conjecture my destiny.’ He wanted to return to Africa, but he came to accept the fact that he ‘was reserved for another fate.’ His recognition of this Igbo philosophical construct must have become more coherent to Vassa as he grew older and reflected on his life. He was, after all, the acknowledged leader of the black poor of London and he was determined to lead his people out of bondage.

The apparent cracks in the Equiano edifice discovered by Vincent Carretta arise from two documents, both of which indicate that he was born in South Carolina, rather than in West Africa. The fact that there are two independent documents that claim a Carolina birth seems irrefutable proof that his own story of his youth is fanciful, or this is what Carretta concludes. The first document is his baptismal record from St. Margaret’s Church, London, 9 February 1759, and the second is the muster book of the ship,
Racehorse, from the Arctic expedition of Phipps in the summer of 1773. According to Carretta,

…surprisingly, his baptismal record in 1759 and naval records from his Arctic voyage in 1773 suggest that he may well have been born in South Carolina, not Africa. External contradictions are especially intriguing because Equiano’s account of his life is generally remarkably verifiable when tested against documentary and historical evidence, so much so that deviations from the truth seem more likely to have been the result of artistic premeditation than absentmindedness. From the available evidence, one could argue that the author of The Interesting Narrative invented an African identity rather than reclaimed one.32

The entry in the parish register for St. Margaret’s Church for 9 February 1759 reads: ‘Gustavus Vassa a Black born in Carolina 12 years old.’33 Besides contradicting Vassa’s autobiography and his claim to an African birth, this information is at odds with the age he gives for when he was enslaved (11) and for when he arrived in England (12), which was in 1753-54, a difference of more than four years, and even different from his original assertion that he first arrived in England in 1757.

In the muster book of the Racehorse, Gustavus Vassa is not listed, but a Gustavus Weston, identified as a seaman, aged 28, born in South Carolina, is listed. The muster roll confirms that Vassa was on board, which we already knew from The Interesting Narrative.34 The more important question is what Vassa was doing on board. He was not an ‘ordinary seaman,’ as listed in the muster roll and noted without comment by Carretta. He was Dr. Charles Irving’s assistant in his experiments in distilling sea water, the significance of which is discussed below, as is the identity of Dr. Irving.35

Carretta has attempted to resolve the contradictions in the chronology of Vassa’s early life by explaining that he was probably born in 1747 rather than 1745, and in any event was younger when he arrived in England than what is claimed in The Interesting Narrative. Hence not only where he was born is contested, but when. According to Carretta,

…assuming that the birth date of 1745 in the Narrative is accurate, Vassa must have been younger than he claims when he left Africa, younger still if he was born in 1746 or 1747, as the ages recorded at his baptism and on his Arctic voyage suggest…. The documentary evidence indicates that he was most probably between seven and nine years of age when Pascal first met him in Virginia, and thus he would have been between six and eight years old when he says he was initially kidnapped in Africa.36

If the baptismal record is accurate and he was 12 in February 1759, he would have been born in 1747, as Carretta concludes, but the evidence of the Arctic expedition is not the same, as Carretta claims, Vassa testifying that he was 28 in 1773, suggesting a birth date in 1745, as he states in his Narrative. In my opinion, Vassa guessed when he was born, based on his own calculations of when he arrived in England and his baptismal date, 1759. In 1773, he thought he was 28, and hence born in 1745, which makes the evidence of the Arctic muster book consistent with the chronology of his early childhood as he initially published it in the first edition of The Interesting Narrative. When he was writing in 1788, he thought that it was ‘about the beginning of the year 1757 when I arrived in England, and I was near twelve years of age at the time,’ when in fact it was
December 1754, a mistake he corrected in a subsequent edition of his *Interesting Narrative* without changing his estimated date of birth. Hence he estimated that he was almost 12 when he arrived in England, which is consistent with his estimate of his age when he was kidnapped, at age 11. He must have thought he was 14 when he was baptized, not 12, as recorded, because he thought he had arrived in England in 1757. In fact, he would have been at least 16, not 12, since he actually arrived in England in December 1754.

But what did Vassa say about his early life, and what was the chronology of this period? After ‘he turned the age of eleven’ he was kidnapped, and eventually sold to a British slave ship ‘at the end of six or seven months,’ eventually reaching Barbados, where he remained only ‘a few days,…not above a fortnight,’ before being taken to Virginia. In the summer of 1754, one Mr. Campbell purchased him for his tobacco farm, but three months later, he sold the boy to Michael Henry Pascal, who at the time was captain of the merchant ship *Industrious Bee*, which arrived in England in December 1754. As Carretta has demonstrated, Pascal was in Virginia in 1754, not in 1756, more than two years earlier than Vassa recounted in the first editions of the *Narrative*. Hence, the various editions of *The Interesting Narrative* give confusing and contradictory dates for the period 1754-57. Vassa initially claimed that he had been in England ‘between two and three years’ before his baptism in 1759, but in the 1792 edition, he revised this to read ‘between three and four years,’ which is consistent with the known facts about the date of his arrival in late 1754. The difference in a couple of years is significant because it affects what Vassa might have remembered and what he might have fabricated. According to Vassa’s own chronology, it was about 16 months from the time of his kidnapping until his arrival in England in mid December 1754, initially spending ‘some months’ in Guernsey.

There is no reason to assume that Vassa’s estimated date of birth in 1745 is accurate, or that the date on the baptismal record is correct, which would indicate that he was born in 1747. The adjustments in Vassa’s recollection of when he first reached London can be explained as the attempt of the adult Vassa to reconstruct his childhood. While his baptism and his enlistment on the Arctic expedition are not the only evidence that information about his life was sometimes inaccurate, it is another matter to assume that he consciously misled virtually everyone he knew about his place of birth. Why not assume that the age he remembered at the time of his enslavement is approximately correct, as are his recollections of key events during the Seven Years’ War in 1756-63, and by extension backward, to his purchase by Pascal in 1754? I do not think Carretta is correct that ‘if and when he left Africa he was probably much younger than eleven years old.’ If in fact Vassa was born in Africa, there is little reason to doubt Vassa’s estimate of his age of enslavement at age 11. As a boy, Vassa was not put in fetters on board the slave ship, suggesting that he was as young as 11-12. After checking dates in *The Interesting Narrative* provided by Vassa, not surprisingly, it can be seen that Vassa was sometimes mistaken. However, this information does not necessarily mean that he was younger than he claimed when he entered Pascal’s service, as Carretta has assumed.

The internal evidence suggests that he was using his age of enslavement as a constant in his efforts at chronological reconstruction, not his date of birth. Thus if he was about eleven when he was enslaved and twelve when he reached England, it means that he was most likely born in 1742 or 1743, perhaps three years before he reckoned,
rather than two years afterwards, not in 1745 or 1747. The first convincing documentation on his age and hence date of birth is from 1753-54, when he was enslaved and taken to Virginia via Barbados, taking an estimated sixteen months to reach England after being kidnapped. If this had happened at age 11, he would have been 12 when Pascal bought him, 17 when he was baptized, and 20 in 1762 when Pascal sold him back to the West Indies after the end of the Seven Years’ War, 24, when he gained his freedom in 1766, 31 when he was on the Arctic expedition in 1773, 47 when he published the Interesting Narrative, and 55 when he died in 1797. Accepting his testimony that he was 11 when he was enslaved eliminates Carretta’s critique of how much a boy of seven or eight could remember. At 11, one does not usually forget language and by then one has been introduced into many facets of culture and society, more than at 7 or 8. What Vassa says he remembers is more consistent with the memory of an 11 year old than someone younger.38

The methodological issue becomes, then, why it is best to accept his estimate of how old he was when he was kidnapped, rather than some other benchmark. Of course this assumes that he was telling the truth that he was kidnapped, and not inventing a story when in fact he was born in South Carolina. Memory, autobiography and what actually happened are not the same, and hence the attempt to chronicle Vassa’s childhood is indeed fraught with uncertainties and hence the subject to interpretation. On the one hand there are two documents that confirm a Carolina birth, and on the other hand, there is cultural information contained in The Interesting Narrative sufficient to question the veracity of the baptismal record from St. Margaret’s Church in London and the naval records of the Arctic expedition, although it cannot be denied that the existence of two independent documents stating a Carolina birth appear to be conclusive proof that he was not born in Africa.

In my opinion, however, a careful reading of the linguistic, geographical, and cultural details provided by Vassa leaves little doubt that he was born in Africa, and specifically in Igboland. In methodological terms, written documentation confronts oral sources and traditions, as related through the memories of an individual and filtered with acquired information from a variety of sources.

Vassa states that ‘I was born, in a charming fruitful vale, named Essaka.’ Very possibly, this is to be identified with Isseke, in Orlu, in central Igboland. As Catherine Obianju Acholonu has argued, numerous cultural and linguistic similarities between Orlu and Vassa’s description lend support to this identification.39 It has also been suggested that ‘Essaka’ is to be identified as Nsukka, in northern Igbo country, again on the basis in the similarity of names.40 Cultural features, most especially, the use of ichi scarification, the veneration of pythons, the use of anchor-shaped money, and the practice of celebrating two ceremonies before the yam harvest could well be based on Vassa’s own memory, probably embellished with information that he learned from other Igbo speakers in London but nonetheless deriving from his own experience. The cultural features that Vassa recounts were very probably characteristic of many parts of Igboland in the eighteenth century, although this is based on later information that is being read backwards in time. Hence any identification should be treated with caution, but the area of central or northern Igboland seems most likely, rather than the area west of the Niger that was subject to Benin, despite Vassa’s initial reference to Benin.41 The identification is uncertain because Vassa earlier stated, in a letter in June 1788, almost a year before the
publication of the *Interesting Narrative*, his desire ‘to return to my estate in Elese, in Africa,’ where he would greet the ‘worthy senators there, as the Lord liveth, we will have such a libation of pure virgin palm-wine, as shall make their hearts glad!’42 The reference to ‘Elese’ is unclear, but possibly also refers to ‘Essaka.’

Vassa described ‘Essaka’ as being ‘in one of the most remote and fertile’ provinces of the Kingdom of Benin, and identified this province in the first edition as ‘Eboe,’ a detail deleted in all subsequent editions. On the basis of the Benin reference, G.I. Jones has suggested ‘Essaka’ was likely to be in northern Ika country, west of the Niger River, although there is no place there that resembles the name.43 Vassa did not know the distance between Essaka and the capital of Benin, but on the basis of his memory, he thought that ‘our subjection to the king of Benin was little more than nominal; for every transaction of government, as far as my slender observation extended, was conducted by chiefs or elders.’44 This reference to Benin almost certainly was derived from his later knowledge of Africa, and it is very likely that he was trying to place his home in the framework of his understanding of African geography. Specifically, he was influenced by the tracts of the American Quaker, Anthony Benezet, who wrote about the Kingdom of Benin but had nothing at all to say about Igbo or its people, although sometimes it is claimed that Benezet influenced what Vassa wrote about Igbo society and culture.45 Vassa seems to have transposed what he learned later onto his childhood memory, since there was almost certainly no connection between his home and the Kingdom of Benin.

Vassa states that his village relied on a system of government which he identified as ‘embrenché.’ According to Vassa, ‘every transaction of the government...was conducted by chiefs or elders of the place.... My father was one of those elders or chiefs..., and was styled Embrenché; a term, as I remember, importing the highest distinction, and signifying in our language a mark of grandeur.’46 Afigbo equates the term with *ndichie* or elders, and which sometimes has the meaning is ‘ancestors,’ and notes Vassa’s confusion in conflating the term for ritual scarification and elders.47 Similarly, Acholonu considers Vassa’s term a contraction of two terms, *igbu ichi*, the scarification given to males on their foreheads, and *mgburichi*, the men with such scarification.48 According to Vassa, the men on the governing council had the *ichi* marking:

Mark this is conferred on the person entitled to it, by cutting the skin across at the top of the forehead, and drawing it down to the eye-brows; and, while it is in this situation, applying a warm hand, and rubbing it until it shrinks up into a thick weal across the lower part of the forehead. Most of the judges and senators were thus marked; my father had long borne it: I had seen it conferred on one of my brothers, and I was also destined to receive it by my parents.49

Vassa had not yet undergone the scarification ceremony because he was not old enough; it was usually performed at age 13 or 14, as he witnessed with his older brother.

The actual operation was horrendous, and of such severity in its pain and significance that a boy destined to receive it as a sign of his adulthood and citizenship would undoubtedly be very conscious of when it was destined to happen. He was kidnapped before this was undertaken, and in his own estimation, a couple of years before it would have been done; that is he was about 11, which is what he claims. The significance of this rite of passage was clear; it meant that he would eventually join his father as a member of the *ama ala*, the governing council. Whether or not there is a direct
linear connection, according to Acholonu, this association with a tradition of scarification could mean that Equiano/Vassa came from the Ekwealu family of Essike in Orlu, although it is only a possibility. Children were kidnapped, because after a boy received the *ichi* it was difficult to sell him into slavery. British slave traders were reluctant to purchase males who had received this facial marking, although there is no evidence that Vassa had anyway of knowing about this practice other than from personal experience. The practice was certainly not common knowledge in London or elsewhere outside of Igboland, except perhaps among slave traders. In the 1790s, slave trader Hugh Crow learned of this scarification, although he did not use the Igbo term to describe it, but he did note that the men who had such scarification were called ‘Breche, signifying gentleman or…, son of a gentleman,’ and hence Vassa’s account is the earliest reference to the practice and the social and political system that was associated with the practice.

In his enslaved sojourn to the Niger delta, Vassa passed through the hands of a number of merchants and owners. The first whom he identified, and connected with his kidnapping, were ‘red men’ who are to be equated with the Aro, who dominated the slave trade of the interior of the Bight of Biafra, supplying slaves to the two principal ports, Bonny and Old Calabar. Vassa called these people ‘Oye-Eboe,’ that is ‘*onye Igbo,*’ an Igbo person, most likely the Aro because of their activities and appearance. The term essentially meant ‘other’ people, foreigners. Vassa described his captors as ‘stout mahogany-coloured men from the South-west of us: we call them Oye-Eboe, which term signifies red men living at a distance,’ that is ‘foreigners.’ They were often found in the market trading in ‘fire-arms, gun-powder, hats, beads, and dried fish.’ They traded in ‘odoriferous woods and earth, and our salt of wood-ashes,’ and ‘always carry slaves through our land; but the strictest account is exacted of their manner of procuring them before they are suffered to pass.’ According to Vassa, ‘Sometimes indeed we sold slaves to them, but they were only prisoners of war, or such among us as had been convicted of kidnapping, or adultery, and some other crimes which we esteemed heinous.’ Upon reflection, Vassa thought that ‘this practice of kidnapping induces me to think, that, notwithstanding all our strictness, their principal business among us was to trepan our people. I remember too they carried great sacks along with them, which not long after, I had an opportunity of fatally seeing applied to that infamous purpose.’ The Aro had developed an elaborate commercial network, including the establishment of satellite towns and markets that connected with the two principal fairs in the interior at Bende and Uburu. One of the largest was at Ndizuogu, close to Orlu, and the network stretched northward to Nsukka and beyond. Vassa provides some of the earliest information on the consolidation of the Aro network in the interior of the Bight of Biafra, which he believed was connected to the ‘south-west’ of his home. Vassa’s sense of direction is not always clear, although he did relate his location to the sun and was attempting to keep track of where he was in the vain hope of escaping or otherwise returning to him home. The evidence indicates that Vassa remained within Igbo country, noting dialectical differences but stating that also understood what other people said until he reached the Niger delta, apparently at the town of Tinmah, which is otherwise not identified but seems to refer to Ibibio near the Niger delta.

After Tinmah, Vassa was among people who no longer spoke a language he could understand, but instead spoke another language, and the people were also different because they filed their teeth, which he had not known before, and which suggests that
these were Ibibio living inland from Bonny. He notes that at this place the currency was the ‘core,’ which has variously been identified as cowrie shells. Indeed Vassa identifies ‘core’ as ‘little white shells, the size of the finger nail,’ stating that they were known in Britain as ‘core.’ However, it is more likely that he was referring to akori, or coral beads that were used as currency on the lower Niger River and had been exported from the Kingdom of Benin and the Niger delta westward as far as the Gold Coast since the sixteenth century, at least. It should be noted that cowries did not circulate as currency in the interior of the Bight of Biafra, and hence Vassa’s reference to his sale price as being 172 ‘core,’ probably refers to the number of beads, not shells.56

He was taken in large canoes through the delta, which must have belonged to the merchants of Bonny, although he does not refer to the port, instead boarding directly a waiting ship, which is consistent with the way trade operated at Bonny.57 There were twelve ships from the Bight of Biafra that have been identified as disembarking slaves in Barbados in 1754, but most of the ships either arrived in Barbados too early or too late in the year to fit Vassa’s description of his time in Barbados and Virginia.58 The most likely ship is the Ogden, a snow from Liverpool owned by Thomas Stevenson & Co., which left for Bonny on 5 June 1753, under the command of Captain James Walker. While intending to purchase 400 slaves, the ship actually arrived in Barbados on 9 May 1754 with 243 enslaved Africans on board.59 Vassa claims he was in Barbados for less than two weeks before being taken to Virginia, and there is evidence of a ship that left Barbados shortly thereafter, taking slaves to Virginia for sale, arriving in June, which accords with Vassa’s claim of being in Virginia only a few weeks before Pascal bought him from Campbell in the summer of 1754. On 21 May, the sloop Nancy, owned by Alexander Watson of Virginia, left Barbados under Richard Wallis for the York River in Virginia with 31 slaves, arriving there on 13 June.60

Vassa claims that he could speak Igbo, and clearly identifies dialectical differences in his journey to the coast, which means obviously that this was his mother tongue. If it was not, where could he have learned Igbo? Vassa insisted that he only learned English after he reached England. In fact he must have begun to understand some English in the Atlantic crossing. When his ship arrived in Barbados, however, it was necessary to employ interpreters to talk with the slaves on board. These interpreters were ‘some old slaves from the land’ who told them that they were ‘to work’ and that they would ‘see many of our countrymen,’ indeed ‘Africans of all languages.’61 When he left the slave ship in Barbados, he refered to his lack of English, noting that he lost ‘the small comfort I had enjoyed in conversing with my countrymen; the women too, who used to wash and take care of me, were all gone different ways, and I never say one of them afterwards.’62 Hence it can be assumed that his command of English was minimal at best, and a few weeks in Virginia would hardly have altered this situation, even though he waited personally on his master when his master was sick. Indeed, he remarked that in Virginia, ‘we saw few or none of our native Africans, and not one soul who could talk to me,’ although in fact there were a substantial number of Igbo speakers in the tidewater region.63

If he had been born in South Carolina, he would have understood some English at an early age, and could not have made this claim. In London, Vassa had friends and associates who could attest to the fact that at first he ‘could speak no language but that of Africa,’ including Mary Guerin, his god-mother, along with ‘many others of her friends.’
He also referred to Captain John Hill, who worked for the Custom-house in Dublin, Admiral Affleck, Admiral George Balfour of Portsmouth, Captain Gallia of Greenock, and Mrs. M. Shaw, James Street, Covent Garden, London, whom he said could testify to the fact that he only became proficient in English after arriving in London. Vassa claimed that when he sailed with Pascal for England in late 1754 that ‘By this time…I could smatter a little imperfect English…. Some of the people of the ship used to tell me they were going to carry me back to my own country, and this made me very happy. I was quite rejoiced at the idea of going back; and thought if I should get home what wonders I should have to tell.’ During the voyage, he became friends with Pascal’s servant, Dick Baker, the son of the people Pascal stayed with in Virginia; Vassa noted that ‘My little friend Dick [Baker] used to be my best interpreter.’ By the end of 1757, Vassa claimed that he ‘could now speak English tolerably well, and… perfectly understood every thing that was said.’

His friends and colleagues thereby testified to the veracity of Vassa’s claim that he did not speak English, but they could not know if he was telling the truth about where he was born. However, they could confirm his claims that he had stated publicly that he had been born in Africa. Indeed in 1859, the same year he was baptized, according to The Interesting Narrative, he had ‘frequently told several people…the story of my being kidnapped with my sister, and of our being separated.’ As improbable as it may seem, he briefly thought she had been found while he was at Gibraltar later in 1759, but the young woman in question turned out not to be his sister. In 1779 in a letter to the bishop of London, he described himself as ‘a native of Africa,’ while he said he was ‘from Guinea’ in the Morning Herald of London on 29 December 1886. When Vassa subscribed to Carl Bernhard Wadstrom’s, An Essay on Colonization, in 1794, he listed himself as ‘Gustavus Vassa, a native of Africa,’ and when his wife died in February 1796, the Cambridge Chronicle and Journal reported on ‘On Tuesday died at Soham, after a long illness, which she supported with Christian fortitude, Mrs. Susannah Vassa, the wife of Gustavus Vassa the African.’

Vassa also engaged in comparing the customs of his own people with others, and these comparisons further refer to his Africanity. He observed that European did not sell each other,

as we did…and in this I thought they were much happier than we Africans. I was astonished at the wisdom of the white people in all things I saw; but was amazed at their not sacrificing, or making any offerings, and eating with unwashed hands, and touching the dead. I likewise could not help remarking the particular slenderness of the women, which I did not at first like, and I thought they were not so modest and shamefaced as the African women.

When Vassa was on board the Aetna, he became friends with Daniel Queen, who taught him to read the Bible, with which Vassa was fascinated for reasons that again highlight his interest in understanding his recollections of his country:

I was wonderfully surprised to see the laws and rules of my country written almost exactly here [in the Bible]; a circumstance which I believe tended to impress our manners and customs more deeply on my memory. I used to tell him of his resemblance; and many a time we have sat up the whole night together at this employment.
Carretta concludes that these accounts demonstrate that Vassa was beginning to invent his past, but I would suggest that he was making the comparisons to comprehend his childhood in Africa and convey meaning to his readers. Vassa also compared the customs of his people with Jewish traditions and observed the similarity with what he observed in the Ottoman state. Why his baptism records his birth as South Carolina when he was telling people otherwise is a puzzle, but the consistency in his testimony, in my mind, cannot simply be dismissed and certainly reduces the likelihood of fraud; indeed a close reading of the available texts makes it most likely that he was born where he says he was. Vassa visited South Carolina several times in the 1760s, but gives no hint that he had previously been there as a child or that he knew anyone or anything about the area, which seems an odd omission if he had actually been there as a boy. Admittedly he could have consciously selected from his memory for purposes of establishing his African birth, but if he did so he was clever.

The issue, therefore, is whether or not Vassa really was from Igboland, spoke the language, and otherwise had an understanding of that specific cultural heritage, at least an understanding of it that can be attributed to a very bright boy of age 11. And methodologically, that means how much validity can be placed on his account. In this regard, his relationship with Dr. Charles Irving is significant. Vassa worked for Dr. Irving several times, first as a hairdresser in London in 1768, before Irving patented his apparatus for distilling seawater, then as Irving’s assistant on Constantine Phipps’ Arctic expedition of 1773, when the device was tested, and finally as Irving’s overseer of a plantation scheme on the Mosquito Shore in 1776, which was possible because of the fortune Irving made on his distillation apparatus. That is, the two men had an intermittent relationship as patron and client for almost a decade. While Vassa originally was Irving’s barber in London, Vassa later worked with Irving in turning seawater into drinking water. Why Vassa gave his place of birth on the Arctic expedition as South Carolina is not known, nor is it clear if Dr. Irving was aware of the deception, and if so, why he would have thought that the claim of a Carolina birth was important at the time.

Despite the documentary evidence from the Arctic expedition, Dr. Irving must have been convinced of Vassa’s African birth, because three years later, Irving employed him in his abortive Mosquito Shore venture of 1776, precisely because of his fluency in Igbo. Vassa’s role in Irving’s scheme is clear. Irving first went to Jamaica with the intention of buying newly arrived slaves from West Africa, and for this purpose, Vassa was to decide who was to be purchased. On January 14, 1776, before leaving Kingston for the Mosquito Shore, in Vassa’s own words: ‘I went with the Doctor on board a Guineaman, to purchase some slaves to carry with us, and cultivate a plantation; and I chose them all of my own countrymen,’ that is, they were Igbo. Irving’s scheme would use slave labor that would be treated well, provided with extensive provision grounds, and perhaps even encouraged to seek self-redemption, under the tutelage of Vassa. The scheme was based on the supposition that Vassa could ‘recruit’ through purchase sufficient numbers of his own ‘countrymen’, only twelve years after his own traumatic crossing of the Atlantic in a slave ship. What were they promised? Vassa interpreted Christian salvation as the road to emancipation. At one time he had believed that baptism was sufficient for emancipation, but he was still learning otherwise. Irving wanted to use Vassa’s ethnicity as a mechanism of social control.
The venture was possible because British ships were trading heavily in slaves from the Bight of Biafra in the 1770s, among who were many Igbo. The slaves whom Irving purchased almost certainly arrived on board the *African Queen*, under the command of Captain John Evans, which had sailed from Bristol on June 8, 1775. The ship, owned by John Anderson, boarded 336 slaves at Bonny, although only 272 actually reached Jamaica. The first slaves were sold on January 3, and the ship sold its last slaves on February 3rd, leaving then for Bristol, which was reached on April 22nd. There are no other reported ships from the Bight of Biafra trading in Jamaica in January 1776, although in that year at least six ships brought slaves from Bonny, buying an estimated 2,169 slaves and delivering 1,756. Although there was only one ship at Kingston when Irving and Vassa arrived in January, they would not have had to wait long for a ship from the Bight of Biafra, but it is clear that they did not have to wait. Irving’s scheme to develop sugar plantations, using enslaved labor under conditions that would lead to the amelioration of their servitude, depended upon Vassa’s collaboration. After he selected ‘his own countrymen,’ he would manage Irving’s plantation relying on his fluency in Igbo as the means of communication. This expectation seems to me to be convincing proof that he was Igbo. Where other than in Africa would he have had the opportunity to learn the language? Certainly not in South Carolina, where he allegedly was born but where there were few Igbo, and he was not in Virginia long enough to meet other Igbo, even though many were there. In short, Vassa had had little opportunity to learn Igbo other than in Africa, and he would have been of little use to Irving if he was not fluent in the language.

Despite the importance of Vassa’s relationship with Irving, it should be noted that Vassa did get important details about Irving wrong, claiming that Irving died from eating poisoned fish in Jamaica, presumably in late 1776 or possibly early 1777. In fact Irving was alive and well in 1780–81, involved in the preparations for the abortive British invasion of Nicaragua in that year. Irving recruited a regiment of Miskitu volunteers, and he surveyed the river that fed the bay at Bluefields to determine a possible alternate route for invasion and provisioning other than via the Rio San Juan. He is last reported returning to Jamaica, and not participating in the disastrous invasion, although what happened to him after that is not known. If he died of poisoned fish, it was more likely in 1781 or later, not shortly after Vassa left the Mosquito Shore in 1776. It is not clear why Vassa was mistaken on this point given the deep friendship and dependency that had prevailed between the two men. This lapse in memory is curious, if not deliberate, although for what reason is unclear—perhaps because Vassa abandoned the scheme in June 1776, returning to London and thereby losing the confidence of Irving. Certainly Irving believed Vassa was born in Africa, or otherwise how would Vassa have had the ability to select his ‘own countrymen’ for the plantation venture, which was precisely his reason for his being employed? Vassa’s role in this scheme is important evidence in support of the fact that he was indeed born in Africa, as he claimed. There was nowhere else he could have learned to speak Igbo except in Africa.

Although memories of his youth are cloudy, the reference points are helpful. The geography of his country has to be deciphered; after all he was only 11 and passed rapidly from interior to coast, and then to Barbados and Virginia, and in less than two years was in the midst of the Seven Years’ War and life at sea. He had a number of owners in a short period of time, including kidnappers, various masters in the interior of
the Bight of Biafra, the captain of the slave ship, the Virginia merchant who bought him in Barbados, Campbell, who purchased him in Virginia, Henry Pascal, who owned him for about eight years, and Robert King, a Quaker from Philadelphia who operated a business in Montserrat. His longest period of subjugation was to Pascal, for about eight years, and then to his Quaker owner King for another four years. This history is what Gates has labeled ‘the prototype’ slave experience, but if anything Vassa’s life as revealed in The Interesting Narrative is the opposite. By comparison with most enslaved Africans, Vassa had a unique experience that ultimately allowed him to secure his own emancipation at a young age, and beyond that, to achieve leadership in London of a community of upwards of 20,000 blacks, mostly people of African descent but certainly including many who had been born in Africa.

Hence, Vassa was not a typical slave, nor a prime example of the slave as victim. He was a slave for 12 years after leaving Africa, from age 11-12 if his age at the time of initial enslavement is taken, until he was 24, when he purchased his own freedom in July 1766. He achieved his freedom despite considerable obstacles that he describes well, but which on closer examination make his experience the more exceptional, in that the range of opportunities to earn money must surely have been unique. He was not a field hand; he was enslaved as a pre-adolescent boy, and was free by the time he was an adult. His experience is far from that of most enslaved Africans, particularly if gender and age are taken into account. It would have been far more likely that Vassa would have ended up in field labor if what amounted to domestic servitude had not interceded. He was a servant, the personal attendant of a British naval officer, and in that capacity, he had privileges and access to opportunities that were not possible for most slaves. He was baptized at the age of 17, by my calculations; he learned to read and write on ship and then through tutorials in London. He was allowed to engage in trade on his own account, by which he earned his freedom seven years after his baptism. It is unlikely that he could have achieved emancipation if he was as young as Carretta argues – 12 at his baptism – which would suggest that he was only 17 or 18 when he was earning money to buy himself, and 19 when he was actually freed. If Carretta is correct, then his experience was most unusual, being that of an enslaved teenager trading on his own account and successfully so. In my reckoning, he would have been 24 at the time that he was emancipated, which in terms of being able to earn his freedom is more plausible.

In his own day, Vassa had to face charges that he fabricated his childhood experiences. His answers to these charges at the time to some extent anticipate the questions that Carretta has asked about the veracity of his account of his birth. When he faced similar charges in 1792, it was said that he had born in the West Indies, not South Carolina. Critics in two London newspapers, the Oracle and the Star, challenged him; specifically, the editor of the Oracle (25 April 1792) accused him of deceiving the public and claimed that he was born in the Danish Caribbean, on the island of St. Croix.

It is a fact that the Public may depend on, that Gustavus Vasa, who has publicly asserted that he was kidnapped in Africa, never was upon that Continent, but was born and bred up in the Danish Island of Santa Cruz, in the West Indies…. What, we will ask any man of plain understanding, must that cause be, which can lean for support on falsehoods as audaciously propagated as they are easily detected? These charges were spurious, with malicious intent. By contrast, Carretta’s claim is based on solid scholarship, but it is still worth considering how Vassa responded to his
contemporary critics because there may be clues that help to understand the importance of the baptismal certificate in St. Margaret’s Church and his enlistment record on the Arctic expedition of 1773. Was Vassa telling the truth about being born in Africa when there is documentary evidence that suggests otherwise?

The response of his friends and professional associates to accusations that he was born in the West Indies is instructive, providing some verification of Vassa’s account of his Igbo origins. In a letter to Thomas Hardy, the founder of the London Corresponding Society, with whom Vassa and his wife lived in 1792, Vassa wrote, ‘Sir, I am sorry to tell you that some Rascal or Rascals have asserted in the news papers viz. Oracle of the 25th. of april, & the Star. 27th. – that I am a native of a Danish Island, Santa Cruz, in the Wt. Indias.’ He wanted Hardy to get a copy of the Star ‘& take care of it till you see or hear from me,’ signed ‘Gustavus Vassa[,] The African.’ It is clear that there was considerable gossip that he feared would be reflected in the sale of his book and thereby inhibit the abolition movement. Indeed if his kidnapping, sale to the coast, and his rendition of the Middle Passage were fiction, then Vassa’s credibility would have been completely undermined, as his critics in the Oracle and the Star tried to do. Vassa responded to these charges on the first page of the 9th edition in 1794:

An invidious falsehood having appeared in the Oracle of the 25th, and the Star of the 27th of April 1792, with a view to hurt my character, and to discredit and prevent the sale of my Narrative, asserting, that I was born in the Danish island of Santa Cruz, in the West Indies, it is necessary that, in this edition, I should take notice thereof, and it is only needful of me to appeal to those numerous and respectable persons of character who knew me when I first arrived in England, and could speak no language but that of Africa. It is possible that the details on the baptismal record expressed the intentions of his god parents, specifically Mary Guerin and her brother, Maynard, at the time, although later his godmother was willing to testify in support of his claim that he could only speak his African language when he first came to England. In 1759, as noted above, Vassa was telling a number of people about the kidnapping of his sister and himself, and he most certainly would have told the Guerins and Pascal, too. It is possible that his godmother wanted people to think that he was creole born, and not a native African, because he spoke English so well. Because she later was willing to confirm his fluency in his ‘African’ language, that is, Igbo, as proof of his place of birth, this is a curious contradiction which a focus on the baptismal record alone overlooks. Are we to believe the testimony of his god-mother in St. Margaret’s Church at the time of his baptism or her later testimony confirming his African birth? Vassa’s account of his African origin stands out as sincere, and he probably was not responsible for what was entered into the
registry at St. Margaret’s Church. Mary Guerin’s later testimony casts serious doubts on the veracity of the baptismal record.

The muster entries for the Racehorse are also difficult to explain. Could it be that as a freeman and the assistant to the noted Dr. Irving that he thought that a Carolina birth was more respectable than an African birth at that point in his life? It would not be surprising that at some time he thought about his Africanity with respect to issues of British respectability. Certainly later in life he had resolved this issue and was suitably proud and public about his African birth. The testimonies of associates and the patronage of many of the leading intellectuals and religious leaders of his day speak to the authenticity of Vassa’s many public statements about his origins. His confession of a Carolina birth in 1773, seven years after he purchased his own freedom, may have been an exception to his usual honesty. Why doubt Vassa’s account of his birth rather than what he registered in the muster books? Again, circumstantial evidence, specifically his association with Dr. Irving who later relied on his knowledge of Igbo in the Mosquito Shore scheme, raises questions in my mind of the reliability of the muster books.

His life-long voyage was providential, or at least it appeared to Vassa to be so by the time he wrote his autobiography. Many contemporaries, including leading abolitionists, seem to have thought that Vassa had been chosen to lead his people out of bondage, a mission which was reflected in the significance of his name, Gustavus Vassa. The slave boy Olaudah Equiano was the Moses of his people, not only ‘his countrymen’ but all Africans, whom at times he came to include in his definition of his people. His identification with ‘Africa’ implied that he included all of his enslaved sisters and brothers. As his Swedish namesake led his people out of subjugation under Danish oppression, he would do the same. The parallel with Moses and the exodus was immediately brought to mind in the irony of naming a slave after such a hero. Accepting his fate, his chi, he played a major role in the abolition movement. He was a friend of the great British abolitionist, the Rev. James Ramsay, first in the West Indies, and then again in London when Ramsay began preaching against slavery on a regular basis. He told Granville Sharp of the Zong affair in 1783, in which 132 enslaved Africans from the Bight of Biafra were thrown overboard alive in order to collect insurance from the underwriters. The scandal was a major mobilizing influence in the abolitionist movement. He was involved in the first Sierra Leone settlement scheme in 1788, although in the end he became the spokesman for the grievances and failures of the scheme. His image at this time was as an African, signing with others as the ‘sons of Africa’ in various letters to newspapers. By the mid 1780s, he was an acknowledged advocate and one of the principal leaders of the ‘black poor’ of London.

The baptismal and naval documents raise important issues, especially since ‘Equiano’ has been claimed as ‘American’ and The Interesting Narrative the archetypal ‘slave narrative’. In fact, Vassa spent only a few months in Virginia in 1754, and later on ships trading to South Carolina, Georgia and Philadelphia as a slave, and then as a freeman trading to Georgia and South Carolina. He visited New York and Philadelphia in the early 1790s, selling his book, in conditions that were quite different than his earlier experiences. Not only was he a freeman, he was also well known, residing with prominent members of abolitionist circles in both cities. As a Briton, he displayed a keen interest in science through his friendship with Dr. Irving, expressed himself musically through his mastery of the French horn, participated in debating societies, most notably
the London Corresponding Society, as one of its first members, and demonstrated his commitment to interracial marriage through his liaison with Susannah Cullen. Hence the issue is not the validity of autobiography, whether something is being remembered accurately or being distorted for some purpose of obfuscation or political intent, but whether or not subsequent generations and scholarship choose to interpret ambiguities in a particular fashion. Vassa was a prominent historical figure, and it matters whether or not he was telling the truth about his birth.

Autobiography is not an accurate indicator of memory, and memory is not an exact replica of what actually happened. Autobiography can be used as a means by which memory can be reconstructed, but to use autobiography as a means of understanding what people remember, and why, means that the facts being presented in the narrative have to be placed in context and checked against available documentation. This methodological issue is directly confronted in examining memories of slavery and abolition in the life of Gustavus Vassa. The challenge is that he may NOT have been born in Africa, a significant detail that casts a shadow on the veracity of the eyewitness accounts recorded in his life story. The challenge of *The Oracle* that ‘Ex hoc uno discem omens’ – this one fact tells all’ is appropriate in considering recent accusations that he falsified his place of birth, even if for noble political motives. Sometimes documents may suggest that an individual lied, when in fact that may not have been the case at all.

Vassa seems to have largely withdrawn from public life after 1794, once the British government moved to suppress the discussion of Parliamentary reform and charged his friend Thomas Hardy and others with treason. Vassa subsequently appears to have focused on his family. There were no more editions of his work in his lifetime, suggesting that the repression and the accusations against his integrity had their effect. His wife and one of his daughters died, leaving him to raise his other daughter until he too succumbed on 31 March 1797. At the time of his death, he was relatively well off, even sub-leasing a flat in Plaisterers’ Hall at London Wall in the guildhall section of the City and set to inherit land in Cambridgeshire upon the death of his mother-in-law. On his deathbed, several distinguished individuals visited him, including Granville Sharp, by which time Vassa had lost his voice. He did not live to see the Promised Land and the delivery of his people from bondage.

Methodologically, the early life history of Gustavus Vassa, when he had the name Olaudah Equiano, raises interesting questions of verification and context. The existence of two independent written documents that claim a Carolina birth conflicts with the personal testimony and ultimately oral account of the person whose place of birth is in question. On the one hand, the baptismal record at St. Margaret’s Church is difficult to explain, although there is sufficient error in recording Vassa’s name on the Arctic expedition to raise questions about whether or not anything recorded for him on that expedition was heard correctly by the person keeping the muster roll. Nonetheless, the existence of two documents that claim a Carolina birth is difficult to reconcile with Vassa’s own account. However, the veracity of the documents which seem irrefutable is called into question when placed in context. The contradictory testimony of Vassa’s godmother, initially in recording his baptism in 1759, and then in 1792 verifying that he only knew an ‘African’ tongue when she first met him, raises questions about the baptismal record but does not mean that it was mistaken. But did he provide the information for the record? This is not known, but according to a number of sources, it is clear that he was
not familiar with the English language until after he had been a slave of Pascal for some time. Only in 1759, at the time of his baptism was he able to 'speak English tolerably well, and I perfectly understood every thing that was said.' Hence he knew what was being entered on his baptismal record. Similarly, he had to have said that he was born in Carolina on the Arctic expedition; there is no other explanation, but what is not understood is why he would not say he was born in Africa at this time. He clearly told the man he worked for, Dr. Charles Irving, that he was an African and spoke Igbo, and on the basis, the Mosquito Shore caper was planned. It is unlikely that Irving would have otherwise later employed him in a plantation scheme unless he had a knowledge of Igbo. Hence it is a question of when he told the truth, whether in his autobiography or at the time of his baptism and trip to the Arctic. Methodologically, it cannot be assumed that conflicting documentary information is sufficient to deny his African birth, his conscious development of an Igbo identity, his identification with both an African community, and ultimately his commitment to a multi-racial society, as evidenced in his marriage. The preponderant evidence confirms his African birth, and the documents that claim otherwise have to be interpreted accordingly. What appears to confirm the place of birth as South Carolina disappear when the chronology of his Narrative is more carefully deciphered, suggesting that Vassa was likely two or three years older than he thought, not younger as Carretta has concluded. When all factors are considered, especially in consequence of what he reveals about eighteenth-century culture and society in Igboland, the most reasonable conclusion in assessing whether or not Vassa was born in Africa or in America is to believe what Vassa claimed, that he was born in a place called ‘Essaka.’ Hence his account of his homeland and the terror of the ‘Middle Passage’ should be considered as being derived from his memory, which he attempted to place in the context of what was known in Britain about Africa. As in other autobiographical accounts, the account of his childhood was filtered through additional information learned later in life and reflections on what he remembered and how he attempted to understand his early experiences. That there should be variance in detail between what is stated and what probably happened is a methodological problem that faces anyone working with autobiography.

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NOTES


2 The mistaken belief that the publication of the *Interesting Narrative* preceded Parliamentary action is attributable to Thomas Digges, a contemporary in Belfast, as quoted in Shyllon, *Black People in Britain*, 237. Also see various testimonials published in Carretta, *Interesting Narrative and Other Writings*, 350-71.


4 This is not to argue that there was a fully developed consciousness of ‘Igbo’ in the eighteenth century, or that culture is a static construct. Indeed Vassa’s use of the expressions ‘Eboe,’ ‘my countrymen,’ and ‘nation’ reveal a complex, and indeed sophisticated, use of terminology to address issues of identity. The idea of being Igbo in the eighteenth century is discussed in Northrup, ‘Igbo and Myth Igbo,’ 1–20; and especially Byrd, ‘Eboe, Country, Nation and Gustavus Vassa’s *Interesting Narrative*.’


6 Carretta, *Equiano, the African*, xiv. Also see Carretta, ‘Why Equiano Matters.’

7 *The Oracle*, 25 April, 1792.


9 Contrary to what is widely believed, Vassa seems to have been remembered for over 80 years after his death. The Obituary of his daughter's husband the Reverend Henry Bromley (died February 1878), for example, notes that "he had married Miss Joanna Vassa, a daughter of the then well-known, and still remembered, Gustavus Vassa, the African." Arthur Torrington recently discovered the Obituary at a London Library, and I wish to thank him for this information. Vassa’s wife’s grave, according to Carretta, was inscribed in March 1857, 'Joanna, beloved wife of Henry Bromley, daughter of Gustavus Vassa, the Africa.'


11 See, for example, Northrup, *Trade without Rulers*, on procurement of slaves, warfare, kidnapping, pp. 68-70, 76, 90, 166, 168; on political organization, pp. 90-91; trade, pp. 94, 103, 160, 165, 167, 169-70, 172, 212.


13 It should be noted that David Richardson and I are undertaking a study of the slave trade in the Bight of Biafra in the eighteenth century; see Lovejoy and Richardson, ‘Trust, Pawnship and Atlantic History;’ “This Horrid Hole”: Royal Authority,
Commerce and Credit at Bonny; ‘Letters of the Old Calabar Slave Trade;’ and ‘Slaves to Palm Oil.’
14 Hochschild, Bury the Chains, 369.
15 Rolingher, ‘Metaphor of Freedom,’ 90.
16 Gates, Slave Narratives, 8.
17 Walvin, An African’s Life, xv. Also see Linebaugh and Rediker, Many-Headed Hydra, 243-46; 335-39.
18 William Langworthy to William Hughes, Bath, October 10, 1793, originally published in the 1794 edition, and reproduced in Carretta, Interesting Narrative and Other Writings, 11-12.
19 Carretta, Interesting Narrative and Other Writings, 289. In anticipating his critics, he also observed, in the opening sentence of the Interesting Narrative: ‘I believe it is difficult for those who publish their own memoirs to escape the imputation of vanity; it is also their misfortune, that whatever is uncommon is rarely, if ever, believed; and what is obvious we are apt to turn from with disgust, and to charge the writer with impertinence.’
20 Vassa, The Interesting Narrative, 64.
21 Roberts, Gustavus Adolphus.
22 Carretta, Interesting Narrative and Other Writings, 252.
23 Acholonu, Igbo Roots of Olaudah Equiano; and Afigbo, Ropes of Sand, 154.
24 Carretta, Interesting Narrative and Other Writings, 253.
25 Carretta, Interesting Narrative and Other Writings, 253. Usually, he signed himself as Gustavus Vassa or Vasa, the African, sometimes ‘an African.’
26 Carretta, Equiano, the African.
27 The plaque for Vassa’s daughter, Anne Maria, was inscribed in July 1797 on St Andrews Church wall, Chesterton, Cambridge, ‘Anne Marie, daughter of Gustavus Vassa, the African.’ I wish to thank Arthur Torrington for this information.
28 Edwards and Shaw, ‘The Invisible Chi in Equiano’s Interesting Narrative,’ 146-56.
29 Vassa, Interesting Narrative, 31. Emphasis in the original.
30 Vassa, Interesting Narrative, 64.
31 For the controversy over the place of Vassa’s birth, see Carretta, ‘Olaudah Equiano or Gustavus Vassa?’ 96-105; and Carretta, ‘Identity of Olaudah Equiano or Gustavus Vassa.’ For views that he was born in Africa, see Obianuju Acholonu, ‘Home of Olaudah Equiano,’ 5-16; Acholonu, Igbo Roots of Olaudah Equiano; Afigbo, Ropes of Sand, 145-86; and Gomez, ‘A Quality of Anguish,’ 82-95. The debate is summarized in Hochschild, Bury the Chains, 369-72.
32 Carretta, Interesting Narrative and Other Writings, x-xi. Also see Carretta, ‘Olaudah Equiano or Gustavus Vassa?’
33 Cited in Carretta, Interesting Narrative and Other Writings, 261, n198.
34 See Carretta, Interesting Narrative and Other Writings, 286, n486, citing the surviving musters for the Racehorse (PRO ADM 36/7490).
35 Dr. Charles Irving was a naval surgeon and inventor. In 1759 he invented a marine chair designed to compensate for the motion of ships so that telescopes could be used to calculate celestial measurements. By 1770, he had developed an apparatus for distilling seawater and turning it into drinking water. The Royal Navy began using his desalination
process in 1770, and in 1772, Parliament granted Irving £5,000 for the invention. See the discussion in Carretta, *Equiano, the African*, 137, citing *Annual Register* (1772), 98.

36 Carretta, ‘Questioning the Identity.’

37 See Carretta, *Interesting Narrative and Other Writings*, 62-69. The date appears to be confirmed by Vassa’s reference to his first sight of snow, and the 1754-55 year was particularly snowy in England. Moreover, the name ‘Gust. Vasa’ appears on the muster book of the ship *Roebuck*, on which Pascal served, on 6 August 1755. See Carretta, ‘Questioning the Identity.’

38 The most thorough analysis of Vassa’s account taking his age into consideration is to be found in Afigbo, *Ropes of Sand*, 145-86.

39 On various details, see Acholonu, *Igbo Roots of Equiano*, although it should be noted that Acholonu makes errors in quoting from *The Interesting Narrative*. Moreover, her discussion of generation length, kinship relationships, and physical resemblances between portraits of Vassa and individuals who may be relatives is questionable.

40 For a discussion, see Afigbo, *Ropes of Sand*, 152-54.

41 The suggestion of Isseke was first made by Achebe, ‘Handicaps of Writing in a Second Language,’ although Achebe did not explain his selection. The identification has been argued elaborately, although not always convincingly, by Acholonu; see especially ‘Home of Olaudah Equiano,’ and Acholonu, *Igbo Roots of Equiano*.


43 Ika was nominally subject to the Kingdom of Benin in the mid eighteenth century, and hence Jones claims that ‘we can locate his home with some certainty in the northern Ika Ibo region, which is the eastern part of the present Benin province’ (Jones, ‘Equiano of the Niger,’ 64). Jones also establishes the place as being in northern Ika because of the method for making palm wine, where it is made from oil palms, as described by Vassa, while in southern Ika, palm wine was obtained from the raffia palm. However, this distinction in technique applies elsewhere in Igboland and is not peculiar to Ika.

44 Vassa, *The Interesting Narrative*, 32.

45 Benezet, *Some Historical Account of Guinea*. Benezet quoted at length various European observations of western Africa, but nothing on the interior of the Bight of Biafra, skipping from the Kingdom of Benin to Kongo and Angola in his descriptions and reports. He quotes some information on Barbados that presumably Vassa could have used, but not on his homeland.

46 Vassa, *The Interesting Narrative*, 32.


48 Acholonu, *Igbo Roots of Equiano*; and Acholonu, ‘Home of Equiano,’ 7-8. This identification was also suggested by Edwards, ‘Embrenché and Ndichie,’ 401-02.


50 Acholonu, ‘Home of Equiano,’ 10-11; also see Acholonu, *Igbo Roots of Equiano*.

51 According to Crow (*Memoirs of Hugh Crow*, 199-200), who traded to Bonny in the 1790s, slave traders avoided buying males with *ichi* scarification:
Of the same tribe and speaking the same language are the Breeches, so called from the word Breche, signifying gentleman or like Hidalgo in Spanish, son of a gentleman. As these had seen better days, and were more liable than their countrymen, who are inclined to despond when set on board ship, to take some desperate means of relieving themselves, and encouraging others to shake off their bondage, the masters of the slave ships were generally averse to purchasing them. The Breeches informed us that, in their country, every seventh child of their class when about six or seven years of age undergoes the operation, to distinguish his rank, of having the skin of the forehead brought down from the hair so as to form a ridge or line from temple to temple. This disfigurement gives them a very disagreeable appearance, and the custom is chiefly confined to sons of great men and our author never saw one female so marked.

Also see Edwards, ‘Embrenché and Ndichie,’ 401-02.

Williamson and Pearman, Igbo-English Dictionary, 174, 379-80, 391; and Edwards, ‘Embrenché and Ndichie,’ 401. It has been claimed that Vassa’s term ‘Oye-Eboe’ is oyibo (i.e., oìbo´), a Yoruba term for Europeans; see Chambers, ‘Significance of Igbo in the Bight of Biafra Slave Trade,’ 118. Chambers draws on an account from 1832; see Laird and Oldfield, Narrative of an Expedition into the Interior of Africa, vol. I, 394. Alexander Byrd has also discussed this possibility, but he concludes that is more likely that Vassa was making an attempt at onye Igbo or Igbo person, as accepted here.

According to Byrd, ‘such a usage aligns with the connotations with which the term Igbo was freighted in the eighteenth-century Biafran interior;’ see Byrd, ‘Eboe, Country, Nation and Gustavus Vassa’s Interesting Narrative.’ For the Yoruba term, see Abraham, Dictionary of Modern Yoruba, 459. I wish to thank Nath Mayo Adediran, Curator, National Museum, Old Residency, Calabar, Nigeria, for his assistance in clarifying this linguistic interpretation, which was confirmed by Iheanyi Enwerem, personal communication.

Vassa’s reference (The Interesting Narrative, 37) to ‘a very lightly coloured person,’ or ‘red men,’ suggests the use of camwood as a cosmetic, which was rubbed on the body. See Afigbo, Ropes of Sand, 168-69; Jones, Trading States of the Oil Rivers, 31; and Acholonu, ‘Home of Equiano,’ 9.

Vassa, The Interesting Narrative, 37.


For the interpretation that ‘core’ referred to cowries, see Carretta, Interesting Narrative and Other Writings, 249; and Carretta, Equiano, the African, 25. For a discussion of akori beads, which were often yellow or grey, but sometimes blue; see Ryder, Benin and the Europeans, 37, 55, 56. I wish to thank Olatunji Ojo for this suggestion.

Lovejoy and Richardson, “This Horrid Hole”: Royal Authority, Commerce and Credit at Bonny,’ 363-92. Jones suggests that Vassa might have been sent to Lagos, but this is unlikely for two reasons. Vassa notes that many people on his ship spoke his language, i.e., Igbo, which would not have been the case if the ship had left from Lagos, and second, Lagos was insignificant as a slave exporting port in the 1750s, its ascendancy occurring in the nineteenth century, not the eighteenth. See Jones, ‘Olaudah Equiano of the Niger Ibo,’ 69.
It is possible that Vassa left from Old Calabar, rather than Bonny. The Benn of Liverpool took slaves from Old Calabar to Barbados, arriving, May 29, 1754, but there is no record of a ship that might have taken slaves from Barbados to Virginia a few weeks later. For records of ships leaving the Bight of Biafra, see Eltis, Behrendt, Richardson, and Klein, *Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade Database*.

Eltis, Behrendt, Richardson and Klein, *Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade Database*. Also see Carretta, *Equiano, the African*, 30-31.

For this reconstruction, see Carretta, ‘Questioning the Identity,’ although Carretta rejects his own analysis in favor of a South Carolina birth. The chronology of ship movements, however, should be recognized as being consistent with the alleged experience of Vassa in Africa, Barbados and Virginia.

Vassa, *The Interesting Narrative*, 60.

Vassa, *The Interesting Narrative*, 64.


Vassa, *The Interesting Narrative*, 64.

Vassa, *The Interesting Narrative*, 68.


Cited in Carretta, *Equiano, the African*, 3.


Vassa, *The Interesting Narrative*, 68.

Vassa, *The Interesting Narrative*, 82.

According to Carretta, ‘Queen played a crucial role in Equiano’s later reconstruction of an African past,’ although how this was so is not explained. Queen did help Vassa with his education, however. See Carretta, *Equiano, the African*, 82.

Vassa adds that some of those who were purchased were ‘from Libya,’ another interjection that attempted to situate Vassa’s homeland in the larger context of Africa.

According to Vassa (*The Interesting Narrative*, 106), ‘I myself… managed an estate, where, by those [ameliorative] attentions, the negroes were uncommonly cheerful and healthy, and did more work by half than by the common mode of treatment they usually do.’

The presence of Igbo and others from the Bight of Biafra in Central America is well documented, including references to Ebo, Moco, and Carabali; see Cáceres Gómez, ‘On the Frontiers of the African Diaspora in Central America,’ 115-38. Some Igbo reached Spanish America through the *asiento*, held by South Sea Company until 1748.

The information on the ships carrying slaves to Jamaica from the Bight of Biafra in 1776 is derived from Eltis, Behrendt, Richardson and Klein, *Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade Database*. The *African Queen* is listed as No. 17866.

For references to Irving’s participation in the invasion of Nicaragua in 1780-81, see Stephen Kemble to General Dalling, Bluefields, 15 November 1780, CO 137/79 ff 129-32 (Public Record Office, London); Dalling to George Germain, Jamaica, 28 December
1780, CO 137/79 ff 139-42; Charles Irving to Dalling, Bluefields, no date [1780], CO 137/79 ff 158-60; Irving to Dalling, 18 February 1781, CO 137/80 ff 85-86; and Dalling to Despard, Jamaica, 23 April 1781, CO 137/80 ff 157-62. Also see Kemble, The Kemble Papers, vol. 17, for various citations to Irving. Also note a Dr. Irving was a subscriber to the 1st edition of The Interesting Narrative, listed as living in Lisborn, near Dublin, although almost certainly not the same person; see Carretta, Interesting Narrative and Other Writings, 26.

79 For details on King, see Shyllon, Black People in Britain, 224-25.

80 Gates, Classic Slave Narratives, 8.

81 For Vassa in London, see Edwards and Walvin, Black Personalities in the Era of the Slave Trade, 16-34; and Shyllon, Black People in Britain, 115-66, although Shyllon’s estimate for the number of blacks in London (40,000) appears to be too high. I wish to thank Arthur Torrington for this critique.

82 The article also charged that Wilberforce and the Thorntons were ‘concerned in settling the island of Bulam in Sugar Plantations; of course their interests clash with those of the present Planters and hence their clamour against the Slave Trade.’ The Oracle, 25 April, 1792; in Carretta, Interesting Narrative and Other Writings, 237. For the attack in the Star, see ibid., 238.


84 The passage was addressed ‘To the Reader;’ see Carretta, Interesting Narrative and Other Writings, 5.

85 Vassa, The Interesting Narrative, 38.

86 Moreover, the entry in the baptismal registry is curious and deviates from the other entries, which give full name of the child, usually an infant, as well as the first names of the father and mother, and the date of birth or age if not an infant. Place of birth is not given for other entries because it was assumed to be London. Vassa’s entry reads ‘a Black born in Carolina 12 years old.’ According to Arthur Torrington (personal communication), there are other entries in the registry for St. Margaret’s that refer to blacks, some of whom presumably enslaved. Moreover, Ignatius Sancho was married there and his children baptized at the church.

87 Ramsay, An Inquiry into the Effects of Putting a Stop to the African Slave Trade. For a discussion see Shyllon, James Ramsay, the Unknown Abolitionist.

88 For the Zong affair, see Granville Sharp, ‘An Account of the Murder of 132 Negro Slaves on board the Ship Zong, or Zung, with some Remarks on the argument of an eminent Lawyer in defence of that inhuman Transaction’ [British Library, Ms. 1783]; On March 19, 1783, according to Sharp’s diary, ‘Gustavus Vasa, a Negro, called on me, with an account of one hundred and thirty Negroes being thrown alive into the sea, from on board and English slave ship;’ see Hoare, Memoirs of Granville Sharp, 236-41. The murders had been committed in December 1781.

89 Braidwood, Black Poor and White Philanthropists; Shyllon, Black People in Britain, 150-58; and Wilson, John Clarkson and the African Adventure.

90 In addition to Braidwood, Black Poor and White Philanthropists; and Shyllon, Black People in Britain, see Gerzina, Black London: Life before Emancipation, 133-64; and Fryer, Staying Power: Black People in Britain since 1504, 191-214.
But contrast the approach of Gates and others with that of Edwards and Walvin, *Black Personalities in the Era of the Slave Trade*; and Shyllon, *Black People in Britain*.


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